PAY ME IN EQUITY: CAN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY CLIMATE ATTENUATE COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR?

by

Kara Michelle Polk

A Dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology,

College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in Industrial-Organizational Psychology

Chair of Committee: Dr. James E. Campion

Committee Member: Dr. L. A. Witt

Committee Member: Dr. Leanne Atwater

Committee Member: Dr. Benjamin Farmer

University of Houston

December, 2019

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To my colleagues and committee, your advice and input were invaluable.

To my friends and family, your encouragement helped me persevere.

To my advisor, your council and guidance grew me as a researcher and contributor to our field.

To my husband, Justin, you make every challenge seem more attainable. Your support made this last hurdle possible.

ABSTRACT

In the military, force readiness is essential to mission readiness. To this end, the current study sought to identify how equal opportunity (EO) climate may enhance force readiness by mitigating withholding of effort, a counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Specifically, I assessed how EO climate may both directly and indirectly mitigate withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion, emotional stability, and conscientiousness. Using the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), I suggested that EO climate, emotional stability, and conscientiousness minimize withholding of effort by acting as a resource. I hypothesized EO climate would have both a direct and indirect effect on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, I hypothesized that the relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion would be moderated by emotional stability, such that when emotional stability is high, the relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion is low. Additionally, I hypothesized that conscientiousness would moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort, such that when conscientiousness is high, the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort would be low. I found partial support for my hypotheses. The implications of my study are twofold: EO climate does mitigate withholding of effort, potentially enhancing performance, and resources may have ceiling (rather than additive) effects.

Introduction

In the military, force readiness is essential to mission readiness. That is, it is essential for military personnel to be primed and prepared to perform well at any given time. Various factors may impact force readiness, such as equal opportunity (EO) climate (Dansby & Landis, 1991), emotional exhaustion (King, 2012), counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (i.e., behaviors exhibited by personnel that seek to undermine and threaten the efficacy of an organization) (Dalal, 2005; Gruys & Sackett, 2003), and personality. Due to their potential impact on force readiness, each of these factors were of specific interest in the current study. The current research assessed how climate, in concert with personality, might minimize CWB, thereby enhancing force readiness. This idea and these specific factors are explored more below.

First, EO climate is a military member's expectation that they and other military members will receive resources based on objective merit, not any personal characteristics, such as race, sex, religious affiliation, disability status, or age (Dansby & Landis, 1991; Walsh, Matthews, Tuller, Parks, & McDonald, 2010). When combined, these perceptions create a global perception or *climate.* Employees form these global perceptions by identifying what an organization values through the appraisal of organizational characteristics (e.g., policies, rewards) (Schneider, Gonzalez-Roma, Ostroff, & West, 2017). Thus, EO climate is formed predominantly by military members' appraisals of military policies, rewards, and other organization-level practices.

Over the past decades, the military has taken care to positively shape military members' perceptions of climate through policies and other organization-level practices that emphasize diversity and equality. One testament to these initiatives is the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI). The military created DEOMI in response to the pervasive

inequality in the military in 1971 to enhance force readiness. Since the early 1990's, EO climate has been a heavily researched construct by DEOMI as a means of gauging force readiness and equality in the military.

The weight and importance of EO climate research cannot be overlooked. Inequity in the workplace can have deleterious effects on both victims and bystanders. For example, victims experiencing discrimination and harassment report psychological harm and diminished well-being (Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011; Parker & Griffin, 2002; Piotrkowski, 1998; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). This same relationship can be seen for bystanders, as well (Low, Radhakrishnan, Schneider, & Rounds, 2007; Miner-Rubin & Cortina, 2004). While research has often focused on the outcomes of inequity and discrimination in the workplace, less research has focused on outcomes of EO climate. Thus, in order to empirically identify how to enhance force readiness through equality, additional research is needed to understand the antecedents and outcomes of EO climate.

To date, much of the EO climate research has focused on the structure of the EO climate construct (Dansby & Landis, 1991; Estrada & Harbke, 2008) and some outcomes of EO climate. Such outcomes include: job satisfaction (McIntyre, Bartle, Landis, & Dansby, 2002; Walsh et al., 2010), job stress (Walsh et al., 2010), and work group efficacy (McIntyre et al., 2002), to name a few. However, little research has sought to assess how EO climate may mitigate negative outcomes that impact force readiness, or readiness to perform.

Specifically, I proposed that EO climate may have a negative relationship with withholding of effort, a counterproductive work behavior (CWB). *Counterproductive work behavior (CWB),* a component of performance, is a willful, harmful act engaged in by employees with the intent to harm the organization or its stakeholders (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001;

Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Research suggests that employees engage in CWB in response to either strain or perceived injustice(s) (Fox et al. 2001; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006). CWB can take numerous forms, such as production deviance, sabotage, withdrawal, or even stealing (Penney & Spector, 2005). A type of production deviance is withholding of effort, which is of interest in the current study. Withholding of effort is typically characterized as less productivity due to a lack of motivation in the literature (e.g., social loafing, soldiering) (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). However, this conceptualization has grossly neglected other factors that may influence withholding of effort, such as emotions and cognitions, which are both of great importance in the CWB literature (Spector & Fox, 2005). Thus, I proposed that withholding of effort may not be a lack of motivation, but a means of coping with emotional outcomes of and cognitions about an environmental stressor.

Environmental stressors can take many forms (Spector & Fox, 2005). They may be inequitable treatment by a superior or working with a difficult coworker. Regardless of their form, research suggests that environmental stressors can be catalysts for CWB through negative emotions. More recent research suggests that this takes place because CWB can be a form of coping (Krishcher, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Spector & Fox, 2002). *Coping* is "the cognitive and behavioral efforts made to master, tolerate, or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, p. 223). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) suggest that employees engage in two types of coping: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping aims to modify the person-environment relationship; Emotion-focused coping aims to regulate one's emotions to minimize stressors. Thus, it is plausible that employees may engage in withholding of effort as a means of regulating their emotions by

preserving the few resources they do have (i.e., energy) to buffer against an environmental stressor.

In contrast, if an employee is in a positive, equitable environment, such as a positive EO climate, they may be less likely to engage in withholding of effort. In this way, EO climate may enhance force readiness by minimizing a lack of productivity (i.e., withholding of effort). I proposed that EO climate acts as a resource, negatively relating to withholding of effort, and thereby enhancing force readiness in the military.

The proposed negative relationship between EO climate and withholding of effort may be partially explained by emotional exhaustion. *Emotional exhaustion* is a component of burnout characterized by a persistent state of drained physical and emotional resources (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). This state of resource depletion has been linked to numerous negative outcomes for employees. For example, emotional exhaustion is related to decreased productivity, absenteeism, turnover, and psychosomatic complaints (e.g., depression) (Borritz, Rgulies, Christensen, Villadsen, & Kristensen, 2006; Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In short, emotional exhaustion negatively impacts employee health and performance, and may potentially lead to diminished firm performance (Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins, & Decesare, 2011). Thus, research that assesses attenuating factors of emotional exhaustion is paramount.

While much of the emotional exhaustion literature has focused on individual-level outcomes and antecedents, some researchers have focused on organizational-level outcomes and antecedents. For example, Lam and colleagues (2010) found that service climate and supervisor's emotional exhaustion provided frontline sales associates with information on the likelihood of them receiving additional resources. Essentially, a more positive service climate

and lower supervisory emotional exhaustion relate to less emotional exhaustion experienced by employees. Thus, climate can signal the potential for an employee receiving future compensatory resources, thereby reducing emotional exhaustion.

In this vein, the current research proposed that the negative relationship between EO climate and withholding of effort may be partially explained by emotional exhaustion. As the previous research notes, a positive climate can signal the potential for more resources. A resource can take many forms, from social support to physical energy (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, the belief that more resources will come may allay emotional exhaustion. Pulling from the conservation of resources theory, I proposed that EO climate will indicate an abundance of resources, thereby buffering against withholding of effort by minimizing emotional exhaustion.

In addition to climate mitigating CWB, research suggests that personality also plays a role. Personality, or individual differences, is often measured using the Big Five: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (also known as emotional stability when reverse scored) (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Barrick & Mount, 1991). Research suggests that conscientiousness predicts job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donnovan, 2000), as well as CWB (Salgado, 2002; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). However, less research has assessed how personality may moderate the relationship between an antecedent and a CWB. Thus, I proposed assessing how emotional stability may moderate the relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion. I proposed that emotional stability may interact with EO climate, enhancing the negative relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion. Thus, in addition to EO climate acting as a resource which mitigates emotional exhaustion, emotional stability may also act as a resource which buffers against emotional exhaustion.

Additionally, I proposed assessing how conscientiousness may moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort. I suggested that conscientiousness may weaken the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort. Those that are more conscientious are typically cautious, follow rules, and are well-organized (Barrick & Mount, 1991). As such, conscientiousness, too, may act as a resource that buffers against withholding of effort. Rather than withholding of effort to cope with exhaustion, a conscientious employee may leverage their organization and planning, as well as adhere to rules, rather than engage in withholding of effort. Taken together, individual differences may contribute to minimizing emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort.

In sum, force readiness is of the utmost importance, but may be enhanced or harmed by a variety of factors. Understanding factors that contribute to force readiness, especially in the military, is of the utmost importance. In a role where decisions can be life or death for oneself or one's team members, creating an environment that enhances performance is essential. Thus, the current research is positioned to examine the relationship between EO climate and factors of performance (i.e., withholding of effort). Additionally, the current research adds to theory and practice by assessing how individual differences may enhance performance by minimizing CWB. Considering the widespread nature and detrimental effects of CWB, this research is timely. In a practical sense, EO climate may enhance force readiness by minimizing withholding of effort. Thus, it may be worthwhile for the military to research and implement policies and programs that enhance EO climate. Additionally, it may prove beneficial to select military members based on their emotional stability and conscientiousness as a means of enhancing force readiness.

These ideas are explored further in the following sections. First, I review the climate and EO climate literature. Based on the current literature, I outline recent findings, potential benefits, and gaps. Second, I review CWB and withholding of effort, focusing on how some may engage in CWB as a means of buffering against an environmental stressor. Third, I review past work on emotional exhaustion and its documented relationship with CWB and its relationship with climate. Lastly, I summarize the personality literature and identify how personality may also act as a resource.

Organizational Climate

Prior to the 1980's, much of the I-O research focused heavily on how modifying organizational structures may improve organizational functioning and outcomes (Schneider, 1987). However, researchers began to suggest that the heavy focus on modifying structures failed to take into account a key component of the organization – the people. Schneider (1987) famously wrote "the people make the place," suggesting that an organization and its outcomes would be best understood if the global perceptions of its members were considered, in addition to the structures and policies the organization implemented.

Stemming from this paradigm shift, researchers began to assess organizational climate as a means to better understand human behavior in the organizational context (Schneider, 1975). *Organizational climate theory* suggests that employees have numerous perceptions of the organization's characteristics (e.g., policies), which when combined, create a global perception of the organization (Schneider et al., 2017). Furthermore, researchers consider employee's global perceptions of the organization at the group level to be indicative of the *organizational climate*. The pervasiveness and communication of these perceptions among organizational members assists in the formation of shared organizational climate perceptions at the group level

(Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013), sometimes referred to as climate strength (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002). Thus, early researchers conceptualized organizational climate as an individual's perception of a more global construct (i.e., group level).

While early climate researchers suggested that organizational climate is the individual perception of a group-level construct, the absence of a statistical method to support this assumption held the field back for a couple of decades (Schneider et al., 2013). However, with the advent of multilevel modeling (as well as the computational power to easily assess multilevel models) organizational climate research re-emerged. Furthermore, researchers found support for the use of compositional models when assessing individual perceptions and aggregating them to the group (Chan, 1998). Chan (1998) suggested that the referent-shift model be used in regards to psychological climate and organizational collective climate research. Thus, much of the proliferation of climate research has followed the referent-shift model for assessing climate.

Following the acceptance of multilevel modeling as a means to assess climate, numerous types of focused climates began to be assessed in the literature. Much of the rigor found in measuring focused climates may be attributed to Schneider's (1975) recommendation for researchers to first identify the outcome of interest and then measure the specific climate of the outcome of interest (i.e., matching the bandwidth). Examples of focused climate research include, but are not limited to, customer service climate (Schneider, Macey, Lee, & Young, 2009; Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005), safety climate (Christian, Bradley, Wallace, & Burke, 2009; Clarke, 2006), diversity climate (Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007), and of specific interest in this study, equal opportunity (EO) climate (Dansby & Landis, 1991; Walsh et al., 2010).

These focused climates have been of great interest over the past decade. Examples of recent gains in the focused climate literature include Zohar's (2000) findings that safety climate can impact the amount of microaccidents reported in a manufacturing setting. Other researchers have assessed how diversity climate may relate to various outcomes, such as employee turnover (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). However, climate researchers have not assessed diversity in organizations from a legal perspective. Diversity climate research provides insight into organization's treatment of people from a variety of backgrounds; however, it does not provide insight into how employees may be reacting specifically to discrimination and harassment. Thus, the goal of EO climate measurement is to assess members' perceptions of the equitable treatment of organizational members, regardless of their personal characteristics. This topic will be explored more in the next section.

Equal Opportunity (EO) Climate

Equal Opportunity (EO) climate is defined as "the expectation by individuals that opportunities, responsibilities, and rewards will be accorded on the basis of a person's abilities, efforts, and contributions, and not on race, color, sex, religion, or national origin" (Dansby & Landis, 1991, p. 392). In essence, EO climate is an employee's perceptions of the presence or absence of discriminatory behaviors within a work unit that are legally actionable through labor laws (Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VII; Civil Rights Act of 1991). From both an employee well-being and legal perspective, a positive EO climate is imperative for equitable and favorable organizational outcomes (Estrada & Harbke, 2008). In the following paragraphs, I review the EO climate literature, identifying current research gaps.

Dansby and Landis' (1991) first assessed EO climate, a type of focused climate, to assess the equitability of outcomes and presence (or absence) of harassment in the military. Dansby and

Landis (1991) suggested that EO climate is created based on past experiences and defined within an organization dependent on various environmental events. Relying on expectancy theory, they suggested that employees *expect* certain rewards depending on the effort elicited to accomplish tasks. If there is a disconnect between effort expended and rewards received, employees may attribute this disconnect to a lack of equity within the organization or work unit (i.e., low EO climate).

Even though EO climate is based in perceptions of inequity, it is conceptually distinct from other similar focal climates, such as diversity climate. While diversity climate and EO climate are sometimes viewed as analogous, their core characteristics make them distinct (Walsh et al., 2010). Researchers conceptualize *diversity climate* as "employee behaviors and attitudes that are grounded in perceptions of the organizational context related to women and minorities" (Mor Barak et al., 1998, p. 83). However, EO climate is directly concerned with measuring the equity and fairness associated with different organizational policies and environments for members of protected groups (e.g., women, racial minorities, individuals with disabilities, individuals over 40). Thus, diversity climate focuses on employee perceptions of if the organization *values* diversity (McKay et al., 2007), while EO climate is concerned with if the organization *implements* and *executes* equitable policies to support the environment and increase opportunities afforded members of protected groups (Walsh et al., 2010).

Thus, much of the EO climate literature has focused on how employee characteristics or experiences may relate to their perceptions of EO climate (Dansby & Landis, 1998; Knouse & Dansby, 1999; Truhon, 2008). For example, researchers have assessed the differences in military member's perceptions of EO climate based on their minority status (Dansby & Landis, 1998; Truhon, 2008), past exposure to harassment (Newell, Rosenfeld, & Culbertson, 1995), and work

group diversity (Knouse & Dansby, 1999). However, few studies have focused on job attitudes or performance as outcomes of EO climate.

The few studies which have focused on performance and job attitude outcomes of EO climate have focused on more positive outcomes, such as work group efficacy (McIntyre, Bartle, Landis, & Dansby, 2002), organizational commitment (McIntyre et al., 2002), and job satisfaction (Walsh, Matthews, Tuller, Parks, & McDonald, 2010). Both studies expanded the EO climate literature by looking at broader outcomes, but also by broadening the EO climate construct, as well. Specifically, Walsh and colleagues (2010) updated the EO climate to include other legally protected personal characteristics. Originally, EO climate only included five facets: (1) sexual harassment and sex discrimination, (2) differential command behaviors, (3) positive EO behaviors, (4) overt racist/sexist behaviors, and (5) "reverse" discrimination (Dansby & Landis, 1991, 1998). However, Walsh and colleagues (2010) expanded EO climate to include age discrimination, religious discrimination, and disability discrimination. These additions broadened the EO climate construct, but also our ability to assess the equity of a climate from a variety of vantage points.

In sum, more recent research has broadened both EO climate outcomes of interest and the construct itself. While understanding EO climate's relationship to job satisfaction and commitment is important due to their documented relationships with retention and performance, respectively (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Tett & Meyer, 1993), they do not specifically assess factors that comprise performance, such as counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Thus, using Walsh and colleagues (2010) more recent conceptualization of EO climate, I assessed how EO climate may enhance performance and force readiness by mitigating CWB.

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Firm and individual performance are both integral to an organization's success. However, achieving performance is difficult due to its complex nature. Researchers suggest that individual performance is comprised of three facets: (1) task performance, (2) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and (3) counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). While both task performance and OCB (i.e., discretionary helping behavior) contribute to performance, CWB detracts from an individual's performance and potentially from coworkers' performance. *Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)* is "volitional acts that harm or intend to harm organizations and their stakeholders (e.g., clients, coworkers, customers, and supervisors)" (Spector & Fox, 2005, pp. 151-152). These harmful, volitional acts include, but are not limited to, withholding of effort, sabotage, verbal abuse, withdrawal, and production deviance (Penney & Spector, 2005; Rotundo & Spector, 2010). These acts can be performed against the organization or any of its stakeholders (Spector & Fox, 2005). Thus, depending on the focus of the CWB, CWB may hinder the offender's performance, another stakeholder's performance, or even the organization's performance through loss of productivity, resources, or other contributors to performance.

The potential cost of this loss due to CWB cannot be overemphasized. Researchers estimate that CWB may account for up to $200 billion in costs to organizations per year ($238 billion in 2019 dollars) (Harris & Ogbanna, 2006). As such, organizations that have employees engaging in CWB may be experiencing grave financial costs associated with the loss of productivity.

In addition to the financial cost of CWB, it also poses health threats to organization's employees. These health threats affect both CWB victims and observers alike. Research suggests

that victims of CWB experience more negative health outcomes, such as anxiety, depression, and even suicide (Eurofound, 2015). Observers of CWB between coworkers reported feeling more emotionally drained and experiencing more negative moods after overhearing negative exchanges between coworkers (Totterdell, Hershcovis, Niven, Reich, & Stride, 2012). The impact of CWB on employee health may also be a contributing factor to diminished firm performance (Ford et al., 2011). Thus, through diminished employee health due to CWB, firm performance may suffer, as well.

In addition to the financial and health costs of CWB for victims and observers, research suggests that CWB also has a negative effect on the perpetrator. Meier and Spector (2013) found that instigators of CWB receive incivility, a less severe form of CWB, in kind more prevalently from coworkers, affecting their well-being and hindering their accomplishment of tasks (e.g., sabotaged equipment, withholding of information). The act of repaying instigators of CWB with incivility should be highlighted here for its negative financial impact on organizations, in addition to its negative effect on instigator's well-being. Incivility can cost organizations upwards of $14,000 annually per employee due to loss in productivity ($16,711.75 in 2019 dollars) (Pearson & Porath, 2009). Thus, CWB may create a domino effect of health and financial costs to employees and organizations.

Theoretical Models of Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

In an effort to better understand the motivational factors behind and antecedents of CWB, researchers have proposed numerous theoretical frameworks (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Jex, 1998). While some theoretical models emphasize employees use of CWB as a means of creating parity between themselves and an offender (e.g., the organization) (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), others emphasize the appraisal and attribution

process that employees engage in as they attune to and attempt to make sense of various stimuli in their work environment (Martinko et al., 2002; Spector & Jex, 1998). I explored each of these theories more below.

First, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) suggest that CWB is a response to a perceived injustice. Specifically, they found that employees experiencing violations of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice are more likely to engage in retaliatory behaviors towards the organization. Pulling from equity theory (Adams, 1963), the authors suggest that employees retaliate as a means of "getting even" or "punishing" the organization for the unjust treatment they received from the organization. *Equity theory* suggests that within the context of a relationship, both parties expect there to be an equal exchange of resources per the social norms which societal members are expected to adhere to (i.e., *the norm of reciprocity*) (Gouldner, 1960). Specifically, social norms specify that to receive resources from another person or entity, you must have a mutual relationship to support the transference of resources. This phenomenon is often referred to as *social exchange theory* (Blau, 1964). For example, two friends, Saria and Justin, get coffee together. Saria buys Justin his coffee (i.e., a resource). Justin accepts Saria's offer. The next time Saria and Justin get coffee together, due to his felt obligation to repay his friend, Justin pays for Saria's coffee. This example illustrates how when two parties have a relationship that facilitates the transference of goods (i.e., social exchange), they both seek to offer and reciprocate with goods of equal value as a means of adhering to social norms (i.e., norm of reciprocity).

However, if Justin did not buy Saria coffee, Saria may perceive there to be an inequity in their relationship. She may perceive that she provided greater inputs into the relationship (i.e., payment for coffee) than outputs received from Justin. This perception of inequity based on

inputs and outputs is the basis of equity theory, which provides the foundation for distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Research suggests that not only do relationships between two people need to adhere to social norms, but so do employee-organization relationships (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Social norms encompass the employee-organization relationship because individuals often anthropomorphize the organization. As such, employees expect organizations to provide certain inputs (e.g., pay) and organizations expect employees to provide certain outputs in return (e.g., performance).

However, when violations of social norms within this relationship occur (e.g., an employee works exceedingly hard for a year but is passed up for a promotion, while a less qualified candidate receives the promotion), then perceptions of inequity may occur. Adams (1963) suggests that when an employee perceives their inputs to be greater than another employee's inputs, but their rewards are less, then they may perceive that they have less *distributive justice*. That is, they perceive that the organization is not equitably distributing resources according to merit.

Furthermore, Adams (1963) suggests that employees perceiving their inputs to be greater will either leave the organization or diminish their inputs (i.e., withhold effort). Building from Adams' (1963) equity theory, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) suggest that employees engage in CWB as a means of combating injustice. They suggest that these perceptions of injustice stem from perceptions of inequity and violations of an employee's exchange relationship with the organization. Once the employee perceives these injustices, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) suggest that the employee engages in CWB as a means of retaliating against the organization.

In contrast, Fox and Spector (1999) and colleagues suggest that CWB is an affective and behavioral response to negative emotions stemming from an organization's environment. They proposed *the model of work frustration-aggression*. Pulling from the Dollard-Miller model of aggression (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears, 1939), Fox and Spector (1999) suggest that CWB stems from emotions, such as aggression, departing from other cognitive-focused CWB models. According to the model of work frustration-aggression, a negative environmental event occurs, and negative emotions ensue. These negative emotions can take many forms, but frustration and anger are the most often studied (Spector, 1975; Fox & Spector, 1999). They proposed these negative emotions fuel CWB.

However, Fox and Spector (1999) suggest that the degree to which an employee engages in a behavioral response to a frustrating event is impacted by their disposition (e.g., locus of control, trait anxiety, trait anger) and their perceived likelihood of receiving punishment. For example, if Stella has an external locus of control and high trait anger, the model of work frustration-aggression suggests that Stella will be more likely to respond to a frustrating organizational event with aggression and, subsequently, with CWB. In summary, Spector and Fox (1999) suggest that affective components affect CWB, as do individual differences, providing an emotion-based approach to understanding CWB instead of Skarlicki and Folgers' (1997) cognitive-based approach.

Nevertheless, both Spector and Fox's (1999) model of workplace frustration-aggression and Skarlicki and Folgers' (1997) injustice-retaliation view of CWB fail to combine both the cognitive and affective components of CWB into one model. Building upon empirical evidence that both cognitive and affective components precede CWB (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001), Spector and Fox (2002, 2005) proposed the *stressor-emotion model of CWB* to integrate both

cognitive and affective components of CWB. The stressor-emotion model suggests that employees engage in CWB after experiencing an environmental stressor as a means of coping (Spector & Fox, 2005). Spector and Fox (2005) suggest that people continually assess stimuli present in their environment, putting each stimulus through an appraisal process (i.e., a cognitive process). If a stimulus is perceived as a threat to goal attainment or well-being, then an attribution process begins. The employee will assign blame for the negative stimuli (Spector & Fox, 2002, 2005). Employees may attribute a negative element in their environment to themselves (e.g., I failed to complete an assignment on time due to poor time management), their boss (e.g., my boss has unrealistic expectations of a timeline for an assignment), or the organization (e.g., the organization does not provide the resources I need to complete this assignment on time) (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglass, 2002).

Then, if the employee attributes the stressor to others (e.g., coworkers, organization), the victim will then experience the stressor as a threat, which engenders negative emotions (e.g., frustration, anger). Like the workplace frustration-aggression model (Fox & Spector, 1999), the strength of these negative emotions is impacted by individual differences. Examples of individual differences related to CWB include trait anger, locus of control, and narcissism, to name a few. Thus, the model suggests that if an employee is high in trait anger and experiences a negative stimulus in his environment, he is more likely to perceive the negative stimulus as a stressor, experience strong negative emotions, and engage in CWB.

In addition to individual differences relating to the degree of negative emotions experienced, Spector and Fox (2005) suggest that perceived control over the environmental stressor can also affect negative emotions. Specifically, they suggest that if an employee perceives that they have some autonomy or a means of minimizing the environmental stressor,

the employee will be more likely to experience less stress, negative emotions, and engage in less CWB. For example, if Duke is experiencing a discrimination but has an advocate stand up for him, he may be less likely to experience the stress of the discrimination, negative emotions, and engage in CWB. In sum, individual differences and perceptions of control can both buffer against negative emotions engendered by an environmental stressor, thereby decreasing the likelihood of an employee engaging in CWB.

However, if an employee is unable to buffer against negative emotions, Spector and Fox's (2005) model suggests they will engage in CWB. Furthermore, the target of the employee's CWB depends on whom they attribute the environmental stressor to. For instance, Jones (2009) found that injustice attributed to a supervisor begets supervisor-focused CWB. In contrast, injustice attributed to the organization begets organization-focused CWB. Thus, Jones' (2009) findings suggest CWB is a form of retaliation directed at the entity which the employee attributes blame for the environmental stressor, providing empirical support for the attributional component of the stressor-emotion model of CWB.

In summary, employee's motivation to engage in CWB is complex. Theory suggests that both a cognitive and emotional component contribute to CWB. Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB is the most comprehensive theory, taking into account both cognitive and emotional aspects of CWB. As such, I leveraged this theory in this study to guide and inform my hypotheses. Specifically, I suggested that employees appraise their environment (e.g., EO climate), cognitively attribute environmental outcomes to a source (e.g., the organization), and then engage in CWB as an emotional response if the outcome is negative as a means of coping. Thus, in this model, both cognitions and emotions contribute to employees engaging in CWB.

Measurement and Composition of CWB

While Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model created a framework for assessing and understanding CWB, it did not specify how to best measure CWB. To this end, researchers have conducted meta-analyses to identify if CWB is best studied as a general factor or with individual dimensions as outcomes (Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, & Weigelt, 2016). Marcus and colleagues (2016) results suggest that CWB measured as individual facets. In so doing, researchers can better understand the relationship between CWB and other constructs.

Additionally, theory supports this approach since either a cognitive or emotional response can engender a CWB, and since negative emotion type and strength relate to what kind of CWB is exhibited (Spector & Fox, 2005). Specifically, Neuman and Baron (2005) suggest that employees engage in either hostile or instrumental CWB depending on the strength of the negative emotion. For example, an employee damages property after experiencing anger from an environmental stressor. This would be considered *overt* aggression, which serves a hostile purpose. In contrast, an example of *covert* aggression is an employee withholding effort on the job out of frustration and resource depletion due to role overload. This serves an instrumental purpose. The employee cannot sustain their current amount of work, so they no longer provide the same level of effort.

These hostile and instrumental outcomes are driven by different antecedents (Spector et al., 2006). For instance, anger and stress predict abuse, sabotage, and production deviance; boredom and being upset predict withdrawal. Taken together, these findings suggest that research is most informative when researchers assess facets of CWB, rather than CWB as a general construct (Marcus et al., 2016; Spector et al., 2006).

While researchers agree that CWB is best measured as individual dimensions, there is a lack of agreement about what dimensions comprise CWB (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector et al., 2006). For example, Gruys and Sackett (2003) suggest CWB is comprised of theft, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and/or resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor-quality work, alcohol use, drug use, and inappropriate verbal and or physical action. In contrast, Spector and colleagues (2006) suggest production deviance, sabotage, theft, withdrawal, and abuse towards others comprise CWB. However, research suggests that all these behaviors comprise a general CWB factor (Marcus et al., 2016).

In addition to these conceptualizations of CWB's dimensionality, other researchers proposed similar constructs that were later incorporated into the CWB literature (e.g., workplace deviance) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Specifically, Robinson and Bennett (1995) proposed that *workplace deviance* is a willful behavior that violates an organization's norms, harming the organization, its stakeholders, or others. Due to its extensive overlap with CWB, it was later absorbed into the CWB research. Robinson and Bennett's (1995) workplace deviance work contributed some unique dimensions of CWB that are still often studied today. Their model proposed that workplace deviance is comprised of production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal aggression. While not originally conceptualized as "deviant," more recently, researchers have considered withholding of effort to be a type of production deviance (Spector et al., 2006). In this vein, the current research sought to better understand how equal opportunity (EO) climate relates to CWB.

Withholding of Effort

Withholding of effort's journey to being classified as a subdimension of CWB is more circuitous than most. While originally conceptualized as a more distant cousin of production deviance, withholding of effort is now considered an aspect of production deviance under the umbrella of CWB (Bennett & Nauman, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector et al., 2001). Before joining the CWB family, withholding of effort was considered distinct from production deviance based on intent to harm (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Researchers suggested that production deviance embodied an intent to harm the organization or others, while withholding of effort did not, thereby precluding it from the CWB framework. Thus, researchers initially suggested production deviance and withholding of effort were distinct.

As such, numerous formulations of withholding of effort exist in the literature. Researchers suggest that some withholding of effort is due to motivational factors (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). For example, Kidwell and Bennett (1993) defined *withholding of effort* as "a person who provides less than maximum possible participation or effort due to motivation or circumstance" (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993, p. 430). Thus, they conceptualized withholding of effort not as a reaction to injustice or negative emotion with an intent to harm, but merely a reaction to other environmental factors without an intent to harm.

Furthermore, research initially suggested that shirking, social loafing, and free riding comprised withholding of effort (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). These conceptualizations further reinforce the motivational perspective of withholding of effort. For example, Kidwell and Bennett (1993) suggested shirking happens as an employee moves into a team. The added anonymity of teamwork affords them a place to camouflage their work, allowing them to do less without others noticing.

However, these conceptualizations of withholding of effort consider external circumstances as a catalyst to the neglect of internal circumstances (e.g., emotions, cognitions). Thus, more recent research suggests that withholding of effort also qualifies as a CWB and may be a response to environmental stimuli through negative emotions and cognitions (Spector et al., 2001). While researchers have suggested that withholding of effort may be a reaction to inequity (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993), research has yet to assess withholding of effort in this manner. A paucity of CWB research of withholding of effort persists. To this end, the current research seeks to understand how withholding of effort may be a means of coping to gain additional resources. Specifically, withholding of effort may enhance an employee's resources cognitively, emotionally, and physically. First, withholding of effort may allow an employee to right their perceived injustice by inhibiting goal attainment for the organization. Second, it may allow the employee to have some catharsis by equalizing the scales between themselves and the perpetrator of the injustice. Lastly, the employee may have more physical energy by not attending to tasks. The idea of withholding of effort being a means of coping is explored further below.

CWB and Coping

A burgeoning stream of CWB research explores CWB as a means of coping (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011). Researchers suggest that some CWB (i.e., production deviance and withdrawal) enhance emotion-focused coping for employee's perceiving low procedural and distributive justice (Krischer et al., 2010). *Coping* is "cognitive and behavior efforts made to master, tolerate, or reduce external or internal demands and conflicts among them" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, p. 223). *Emotion-focused coping* is a coping style that aims to regulate emotions to minimize stressors. Using the stressor-strain model,

Krischer et al. (2010) found that CWB is not merely an outlet for aggression but is also a type of emotion-focused coping for employees experiencing injustice in the workplace. By expanding the literature to include emotion-focused coping as a motive for CWB, Krischer and colleagues (2010) expanded the theoretical and empirical view of why employees engage in CWB, further elucidating the underlying motivation for employees engaging in CWB. The current research seeks to further explore withholding of effort as a means of coping with emotional exhaustion.

The Relationship Between Climate and Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)

Organizational climate is an employee's perception of what an organization values based on policies, procedures, and other organizational characteristics (Schneider et al., 2013). Organizational climate relates to many employee- and organizational-level outcomes. For example, Mulki and colleagues (2007) found that ethical climate attenuates negative organizational outcomes, such as turnover intentions, by minimizing role ambiguity and role conflict.

Much of the climate research is framed by social exchange theory (SET). *Social exchange theory (SET)* suggests that employees enter into interpersonal relationships with the organization as a means of exchanging resources (Blau, 1964). Researchers suggest that employees anthropomorphize their organization, allowing them to enter into an interpersonal relationship with the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This relationship then facilitates the exchange of resources.

Much of this employee-organization relationship is shaped by social norms. Gouldner (1960) suggested that exchanges are bound within the confines of social norms such that when one person provides a resource, the receiver then experiences a perceived obligation to provide a resource in return. This exchange loop is called the *norm of reciprocity*. When thinking of the

norm of reciprocity in the context of the employee-organization relationship, one can think of the basic tenants of employment. An organization provides pay to the employee and the employee provides the completion of job-related tasks in return. If this exchange remains positive, then positive resources are exchanged. If a negative resource is exchanged (e.g., mistreatment), then a negative resource will be returned. Thus, the employee-organization relationship can be characterized by a positive exchange relationship or a negative exchange relationship.

Building upon this research, CWB researchers have suggested that when an employee has a negative exchange relationship with the organization they may be more likely to return the negativity with CWB (Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). Climate itself, as previously mentioned, is comprised of employee's perceptions of what an organization values (Schneider et al., 2013). Thus, when employees enter into an exchange relationship with the organization, they are constantly making appraisals of what the organization values and if the organization values them. If an employee perceives that the organization does not value them, then they may be more likely to engage in CWB (Priesmuth et al., 2013).

The link between social exchange and CWB stems from their similar origins. Social exchange theory is closely related to equity theory (Adams, 1963), which suggests that two parties in an exchange relationship are constantly appraising the equity of each exchange. If an exchange is perceived as inequitable by a member of the exchange relationship, then that member may have poor perceived distributive justice or procedural justice, to name a few (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Furthermore, research suggests that one of the motivating factors of CWB is the perception of injustice itself (i.e., a lack of equity) (Krischer et al., 2010; Spector et al., 2001; Spector et al., 2006).

Thus, the current research sought to better understand the relationship between equal opportunity (EO) climate and withholding of effort in the context of social exchange theory. *Withholding of effort* is a CWB that focuses on limiting or stopping productivity to harm the organization or its stakeholders (Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011). An employee may engage in withholding of effort to conserve resources or as a means of righting an injustice. Building upon Krischer and colleagues (2010) findings, I suggested that an employee (specifically, a military member) may engage in withholding of effort as a means of emotion-focused coping in response to a poor EO climate.

In Krischer and colleagues (2010) model expanding research, they found that employees engage in production deviance and withdrawal as a means of emotion-focused coping in response to perceived injustice. They found that engaging in these CWB as a means of emotion-focused coping helped mitigate the impact of the perceived injustice on their felt emotional exhaustion. However, researchers have yet to explore if withholding of effort may mitigate this relationship. Considering the military sample, it is not unlikely that military members may engage in withholding of effort as a means of coping. Typically, when military members join, they sign on to serve for pre-specified amounts of time. As such, military members do not have the same options to leave the organization as civilians do. To this end, if a military member is experiencing a poor EO climate, they cannot remove themselves from the situation, but may engage in withholding of effort to cope with the poor climate to mitigate the impact on emotional exhaustion.

Specifically, I suggested that if an organizational climate, such as EO climate, is poor, employees may engage in withholding of effort as a means of emotion-focused coping. However, if an organizational climate is positive, employees may be less likely to engage in

withholding of effort since the climate has acted as a resource. Thus, I hypothesized that EO climate has a negative relationship with withholding of effort, thereby potentially enhancing force readiness and performance.

> *Hypothesis 1: Equal opportunity (EO) climate will have a direct effect on withholding of effort, such that greater EO climate will be negatively related to employee's withholding of effort.*

While I proposed that a direct effect exists between EO climate and withholding of effort, I also believed that part of this relationship was accounted for by another variable: emotional exhaustion. I proposed assessing how EO climate may have an indirect effect on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. This proposition is discussed further below.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion, a component of burnout, is a "chronic state of physical and emotional depletion that results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998, p. 486)." Maslach (1982) first organized the burnout research, suggesting that, in addition to emotional exhaustion, burnout is comprised of depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment. However, more recent research suggests that emotional exhaustion is a core function of burnout, exhibiting the strongest relationship with demands and resources (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Demands include any organizational aspect that acts as a stressor, such as role conflict or role ambiguity (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2007). Resources are "those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies"

(Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Research suggests that loss of resources by demands induces emotional exhaustion (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Hobfoll (1989) first proposed the loss of resources as an outcome of a stressor, dubbed the *conservation of resources (COR) theory.* The interplay between resource loss and emotional exhaustion is well-researched in the literature. For example, Wright and Cropanzano (1998) employed the conservation of resources (COR) theory to explain the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, voluntary turnover, and job performance. Using COR, they suggest that employees' turnover, exhibit poorer job performance, and are less satisfied in their jobs because they lose more resources than they can reasonably replenish, which prompts a continual loss of resources. This type of continual loss of resources is called a *resource loss spiral*. A resource loss spiral can be likened to a domino effect. Specifically, a resource loss spiral is when an employee loses a resource, which then causes them to lose another resource. In a loss spiral, this negative loss can continue exponentially, creating an extensive loss of resources.

To illustrate a resource loss spiral, consider the following example. Annie is disparaged based on her gender, causing her to experience stress. This causes Annie to become anxious, losing valuable working time (i.e., an energy resource). Thus, Annie gets behind on completing projects, thereby experiencing a resource loss spiral. This loss spiral may continue until Annie is provided with additional resources to offset the stressor (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Wright and Cropanzano (1998) found support for the relationship between emotional exhaustion and both job performance and voluntary turnover, but not job satisfaction. Thus, emotional exhaustion may be a result of resource loss spirals which then impact organizational performance factors.

While employees may experience resource loss spirals, they can also experience resource gain spirals (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008). Similar to resource loss spirals, resource gain spirals are a when the gain of one resource aids a domino effect of gaining more resources. Even though negative events are more salient than positive (Lee & Ashforth, 1996), resource gain spirals are still possible. Thus, having positive resources can beget more resources, potentially minimizing negative outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion.

In sum, by resource loss and gain spirals, resources can impact emotional exhaustion. By impacting emotional exhaustion, resource losses and gains can also negatively impact employees outside of the organizational context. Specifically, emotional exhaustion impacts employee well-being (Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010; Kahill, 1988). For example, emotional exhaustion relates to physiological and psychological problems (e.g., depression), familial difficulties, and feelings of isolation from one's community (Kahill, 1988). In sum, Emotional exhaustion can negatively impact work by diminishing performance and job satisfaction; emotional exhaustion can negatively impact home by diminishing physiological and psychological well-being. Thus, the harm caused by emotional exhaustion permeates both work and home life.

In addition to emotional exhaustion harming employees, it can also harm organizations. Research suggests emotional exhaustion is related to turnover, absenteeism, and a decrease in productivity (Janssen et al., 2010; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Loss of performance and turnover are both extremely costly to organizations. Thus, identifying aspects of the workplace that relate to or mitigate emotional exhaustion is imperative. To this end, researchers have begun to turn the attention to assessing the relationship between organizational climate and emotional exhaustion.

As a means of better understanding the relationship between climate and emotional exhaustion, researchers have begun assessing how focal climates impact emotional exhaustion. Mulki and colleagues (2008) found that ethical climate can attenuate negative organizational outcomes, such as turnover intentions, by minimizing role conflict and role ambiguity. Essentially, ethical climate acted as a resource for employees, minimizing both role conflict and role ambiguity, which both relate to emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Idris and colleagues (2014) found similarly positive findings for safety climate. They found that safety climate predicts work demands three months later. Meaning, safety climate, like ethical climate, can act as a resource or a drain, predicting employees work demands. Lastly, Grandey and colleagues (2012) found that a climate of authenticity can act as a resource for health care providers, buffering resource loss from mistreatment by patients and their families. Taken together, multiple avenues of research suggest that climate can act as a resource, buffering against emotional exhaustion. As a means of expanding this research to include an additional focal climate, I suggested that EO climate may mitigate withholding of effort indirectly through emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2: Equal opportunity (EO) climate will indirectly effect withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion.

In addition to suggesting that EO climate can mitigate withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion, I also proposed that personality, or individual differences, may also act as a resource. Specific facets of personality may enhance the effects of EO climate. This is explored more below.

Personality

Personality (i.e., individual differences) has become of greater interest over the past thirty years, with some organizations even using personality as criterion for selection into an

organization (Chan, 1997). Much of this boom in personality research and use can be attributed to Costa and McCrae (1988) and other researchers that debunked the widespread belief that personality did not exist. Once researchers identified better, generalizable ways to assess personality, the research area took off. For example, a popular way to assess personality is the Big Five, a broad, generalizable measure of personality that measures five areas of personality: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (also commonly reverse scored as emotional stability) (Costa & McCrae, 1988).

In a short time, other researchers pulled personality research into organizations, even using it to predict future performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). For example, Barrick and Mount (1991) explored what aspects of the Big Five predict performance across various types of jobs. Their results suggest that conscientiousness predicts performance across multiple lines of business, making it the most generalizable predictor of performance out of the Big Five personality factors. At a more specific level, they found that extraversion predicts performance in more sales and other client-facing (whether internal or external) roles. In addition to identifying a relationship between personality and on-the-job performance, Barrick and Mount (1991) also found that extraversion and openness to experience predict training proficiency. In sum, personality relates to performance on the job and during trainings.

Researchers suggest that personality relates to performance because personality helps to explain workplace behaviors (Barrick & Mount, 2005). This finding is supported by multiple meta-analytic studies. For example, Barrick et al. (2001) found meta-analytic support for conscientiousness as a predictor of performance, but also found support for emotional stability predicting performance, though less consistently than conscientiousness. Additionally, Hurtz and

Donovan (2000) found meta-analytic support for the relationship between personality and both job and contextual performance.

Ultimately, personality relates to performance. As previously noted, job performance is comprised of task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (i.e., contextual performance), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Thus, while much of the early personality research focused on assessing the relationship between personality and task or contextual performance, more recent research has focused on the relationship between personality and CWB (Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Mount et al., 2006; Salgado, 2002; Spector, 2011). For example, research suggests that trait anger and trait anxiety relate to negative emotions, a precursor to CWB (Spector, 2011).

Others have also explored the relationship between personality and CWB by using the Big Five instead of other personality measures. Using a meta-analytic approach, Salgado (2002) found that conscientiousness relates to deviant behaviors (e.g., theft, drug and alcohol use) and turnover. Specifically, when conscientiousness is high, these behaviors are engaged in less; however, when conscientiousness is low, these behaviors are engaged in more. Salgado (2002) found a similar relationship between agreeableness and CWB. In contrast, emotional stability only related to turnover. In sum, conscientiousness and agreeableness can both minimize the likelihood of employees engaging in CWB.

In addition to assessing how personality relates to deviant behaviors, others have assessed how personality behaviors may relate to CWB with different foci and raters (Mount et al., 2006). Mount and colleagues (2006) suggest that self-ratings of conscientiousness have a strong, negative relationship with organization-focused CWB. Meaning, if an employee at least *perceives* themselves as conscientious, then they are less likely to engage in CWB towards the

organization. However, agreeable employees are less likely to engage in CWB towards the organization or interpersonally. Thus, similar to Salgado's (2002) findings, both conscientiousness and agreeableness can minimize the likelihood of employee's engaging in CWB towards the organization.

While both Mount and colleagues (2006) and Salgado's (2002) work has established a link between personality and CWB, Bowling and Eschleman (2010) assessed how personality may augment the relationship between work stressors and CWB. Their findings suggest that employees low in conscientiousness and high in negative affectivity (i.e., neuroticism) are more likely to engage in CWB in response to work stressors. Thus, in line with others' findings, conscientiousness and negative affectivity can even augment the relationship between negative events (i.e., workplace stressors) and CWB.

In sum, a relationship exists between personality and performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), including CWB (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Mount et al., 2006; Salgado, 2002; Spector, 2011). Personality can even augment the relationship between broader workplace events (i.e., workplace stressors) and CWB. In this same vein, the current research sought to assess how personality may augment the relationship between equal opportunity (EO) climate and emotional exhaustion, as well as emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort. Specifically, I suggested that emotional stability may act as a resource, enhancing the negative relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3: Emotional stability moderates the relationship between equal opportunity (EO) climate and emotional exhaustion, such that the

negative relationship is stronger among workers reporting higher rather than lower levels of emotional stability.

Additionally, I proposed that personality impacts the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort. I suggested that conscientiousness, like emotional stability, can act as a resource for employees. Thus, employees with higher conscientiousness may be less likely to engage in withholding of effort in response to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4: Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort, such that the positive relationship is weaker among workers reporting higher rather than lower levels of conscientiousness.

Method

Participants and Procedure

These data were collected by the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) via the Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (DEOCS) from all United States military personnel in 2012. Data were cleaned using cluster size criteria. Specifically, clusters with more than 28 were dropped from the sample. After cleaning, a total of 972 usable cases were left. All participants were in the Army. 86.6% were male. 67.5% were White, 17.1% African American, 6.6% Hispanic or Latino, 2.5% Asian, 1.7% Native American, 1.7% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 2.9% did not specify their race/ethnicity. Most participants were enlisted members (91.6%); few participants were military officers (8.4%).

The military conducts climate research using the DEOCS annually with some exceptions (e.g., moving units). The DEOCS is a more recent version of the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (MEOCS; Dansby & Landis, 1991). Participation is optional, and results are

anonymous. Supervisors (e.g., commanders) cannot request individual-level data and only receive the results in the aggregate to protect anonymity. The DEOCS includes demographic, cluster, and construct items. Some items (e.g., conscientiousness, emotional stability, CWB, emotional exhaustion) were added for external research purposes (i.e., summer faculty). Others are driven by internal military initiatives (e.g., equal opportunity climate).

Measures

Equal Opportunity (EO) Climate. Twenty items were used to measure seven subdimensions of EO climate: (1) racist behavior, (2) race discrimination, (3) sex harassment, (4) sex discrimination, (5) religious discrimination, (6) age discrimination, and (7) disability discrimination (Walsh et al., 2010). These subdimensions together measure the global EO climate construct. Research supports this factor structure and internal consistency (Estrada et al., 2007; Truhon, 2003). Participants rated each item on a 5-point scale on the likelihood that it occurred over a 30-day period (1 = There is almost no chance that the behavior occurred, 5 = There is a very high chance that the behavior occurred). Thus, high EO climate indicates an environment with little to no discriminatory behaviors; low EO climate indicates an environment with more discriminatory behaviors. Example items include "a person made sexually suggestive remarks about the opposite gender" and "a supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity." All items can be found in Appendix A.

Emotional Exhaustion. I measured emotional exhaustion using items adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The measure is comprised of five items. Participants rated each item on a 5-point scale (1 = never, 5 = very often). All items put the frequency of burnout in the past six months. Adapted items include

"over the past 6 months, I have felt emotionally drained from my work" and "over the past 6 months, I have felt used up at the end of the workday." All items can be found in Appendix B.

Withholding of Effort. To measure withholding of effort, I used a scale adapted from the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C) (Spector et al., 2006). The measure is comprised of six items. Participants rated each item on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all during the past 6 months, 5 = at least once a day). All items put the frequency of withholding of effort within the past 6 months. Example items include "over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to even the score" and "over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to conserve energy." All items can be found in Appendix C.

Emotional Stability. I used an adaptation of the Mini-IPIP to measure emotional stability (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006). The measure is comprised of four items. Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Example items include "I have frequent mood swings" and "I seldom feel depressed." All items can be found in Appendix D.

Conscientiousness. I used an adaptation of the Mini-IPIP to measure conscientiousness (Donnellan et al., 2006). The measurement is comprised of three items. Participants rated each item on a 5-poin Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Example items include "I am almost always prepared" and "I am precise in my work." All items can be found in Appendix E.

Data Analytic Procedure

Before analyzing the proposed model (Figure 1), I first assessed the nature of the missing data within my dataset. I tested if the data were missing completely at random (MCAR) using Little's Missing Completely at Random test. The results suggest that there is a relationship

between these missing data and other variables within my dataset. As such, listwise deletion was not a viable solution to address these missing data (Allison, 2012). Thus, I employed a Bayesian multiple imputation approach using maximum likelihood (ML). Multiple imputation creates multiple datasets with slight variations in the estimated imputed values for these missing data. Then, the analysis is conducted on these imputed values with the combined results creating the final parameter estimates for these missing data. This approach creates unbiased parameter estimates (unlike listwise deletion) and does not compromise sample size.

Once I identified the best approach for these missing data, I analyzed the proposed model (Figure 1) using M *Plus* version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). I assessed the appropriate analytic approach (i.e., multilevel structural equation model (ML-SEM) or structural equation model (SEM)) by calculating the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). The latent outcome variable ICCs suggest that there is no significant between group variance among military units for my three outcome variables: emotional exhaustion (ICC(1)=0.00), withholding of effort (ICC(1)=0.00), and conscientiousness (ICC(1)=0.00). Thus, I used a single-level latent moderated structural (LMS) equations approach.

Using a latent moderated structural (LMS) equations approach allows for unconflated latent moderation estimation (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Zyphur, Zhang, Preacher, & Bird, 2019). Specifically, LMS enables latent variable moderation estimation through modifying the EM algorithm to allow mixture estimation using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Research recommends this approach to prevent error in estimates since latent moderators no longer relate linearly with the latent exogenous variables. Thus, LMS provides a SEM approach that leverages mixture modeling to account for varying distributions among latent variables, enhancing estimation by minimizing bias.

To test LMS model fit, statisticians suggest first assessing model fit with the latent moderator (i.e., conditional model), then assessing model fit without the latent moderator (i.e., unconditional model). Since these are non-nested models, research suggests comparing three fit statistics: AIC, BIC, and loglikelihood (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Assessing these fit statistics allowed me to identify if there was any loss of coverage of the model between the two models. Researchers suggest that an AIC or BIC change of four to seven or two to six, respectively, indicate the model with the lower AIC or BIC is better fitting (Burnham & Anderson, 2002). These fit statistics, followed by typical fit statistics (e.g., χ^2, CFI, RMSEA, SRMR, TLI) will be explored more in the following paragraphs.

Once I assessed model fit, I used the LMS approach and the MODEL CONSTRAINT command in M *Plus* to complete my hypothesis testing. The MODEL CONSTRAINT commands allowed for the mathematical estimation of mediation and moderation, both of which were of interest in this study. I tested both moderators at low, average, and high levels to ascertain the nature of the moderation. Lastly, I used the PLOT command to graph the moderation relationship. These results are explored alongside the model fit statistics below.

Results

Item indicator means, SDs, and correlations can be found in Table 1. Please note, all latent means in cross-sectional studies, such as this one, are zero (Muthén, 2010), thus only item indicator descriptives and correlations are shown. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss both the latent moderated structural (LMS) equations model fit and hypothesis testing results.

Model Fit

To assess model fit, I first analyzed model fit of the unconditional model, then compared both the unconditional and conditional model. Model fit results can be found in Table 2. First,

the overall fit statistics for the unconditional model suggest adequate fit to these data ($\chi^2(514) = 2109.65$, $p < .01$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.05) (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Second, I compared the two models. Research suggests using the change in AIC and BIC, as well as the loglikelihood difference value (i.e., *D*-statistic), to compare the unconditional and conditional models (Maslowski, Jager, & Hemken, 2015). An AIC difference of four to seven and a BIC difference of two to six suggest the model with the lower AIC and BIC values is a better fit. A statistically significant *D*-statistic also indicates appropriate conditional model fit. The change in BIC does violate this range; however, since the other two values fall within their required ranges, I chose to move forward with the conditional model (ΔAIC = 7.21, ΔBIC = -2.55, $D = 11.20$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1 results can be found in Tables 3. Hypothesis 2 results can be found in Tables 3 and 4. Hypothesis 3 and 4 results can be found in Table 5. I conducted hypothesis testing in M *Plus* using the MODEL CONSTRAINT command. Hypothesis 1 suggested that equal opportunity (EO) climate would have a direct negative effect on withholding of effort. These data support this hypothesis. EO climate had a significant negative direct effect on withholding of effort ($B = -0.44$, $p < .01$). As such, I fail to reject hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 suggested EO climate would have a negative indirect effect on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. Specifically, I suggested that EO climate would have a negative direct effect on emotional exhaustion ($B = -0.14$, $p < .01$), while emotional exhaustion would have a positive direct effect on withholding of effort ($B = 0.25$, $p < .01$). Taken together, I hypothesized that EO climate would have a negative indirect effect on withholding of effort

through emotional exhaustion. These data support hypothesis 2 (*Effect* = -0.04, $p < .01$). Thus, I fail to reject hypothesis 2.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were both moderation hypotheses. Since these results must be tested together, I will discuss them together here. I hypothesized that both emotional stability (hypothesis 3) and conscientiousness (hypothesis 4) would moderate the indirect effect of EO climate on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. Specifically, I suggested that emotional stability would moderate the relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion, such that the negative relationship is stronger among workers reporting higher rather than lower levels of emotional stability. Additionally, I suggested that conscientiousness would moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort, such that when conscientiousness was high, the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort would weaken. However, the indirect effect proved to be insignificant when both emotional stability and conscientiousness are high (Effect = -0.01, *NS*). Thus, I reject hypotheses 3 and 4.

Discussion

In the military, force readiness is essential to performance in high stakes environments. The current study sought to understand how climate may impact withholding of effort, which is a component of performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Research suggests that equal opportunity (EO) climate in the military provides numerous benefits, such as a positive relationship with job satisfaction, but has yet to be explored with counterproductive work behavior (Walsh et al., 2010). The current study assessed how EO climate may negatively relate to withholding of effort, a counterproductive work behavior (Bennett & Naumann, 2005). When an employee perceives an environmental stressor, they assign blame for said stressor (Spector & Fox, 2005).

They do this both cognitively and affectively. Once blame is assigned, employees engage in a variety of reactions, including counterproductive work behavior. Sometimes, employees engage in this as a means of coping (Krishcher et al., 2010). In this study, I explored if employees were less likely to engage in withholding of effort due to a positive environment, such as EO climate. Consistent with this theory, the results of this study suggest that employees are less likely to engage in withholding of effort when they believe they have a positive EO climate.

Furthermore, this study explored if part of the relationship between EO climate and withholding of effort may be accounted for by emotional exhaustion. Specifically, I suggested that EO climate would have a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion, thereby minimizing the effect of emotional exhaustion on withholding of effort. Research suggests that organizational climate can act as a resource, thereby minimizing emotional exhaustion (Hobfoll, 1989; Salanova et al., 2005). However, these findings had not been explored with EO climate prior to this study. In alignment with this theory, these results suggest that EO climate does have a negative relationship with withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. Thus, EO climate itself may act as a resource for employees, minimizing their emotional exhaustion and likelihood of withholding effort.

Lastly, I explored if individual differences may also act as a resource, thereby minimizing withholding of effort. In addition to EO climate, I suggested, using the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), that employees would use multiple resources as a means of minimizing withholding of effort. Specifically, I hypothesized that emotional stability, when high, would strengthen the negative relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion. Second, I hypothesized that conscientiousness, when high, would weaken the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort. Taken together, I suggested that these

indirect effects would strengthen the negative relationship between EO climate and withholding of effort. However, the results did not support these moderation hypotheses. In fact, these moderation indirect effects were only significant at low levels. Meaning, when emotional stability and conscientiousness were both low, the negative relationship between EO climate and withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion was strongest.

There may be a variety of reasons for the inverse effect of these moderators. For example, it could be that the positive effects of EO climate are most salient for those low in emotional stability and conscientiousness. Meaning, those higher in emotional stability and conscientiousness may be less in need of EO climate to minimize the likelihood of them engaging in withholding of effort. Due to their high emotional stability and conscientiousness, these individuals may be much less likely to engage in withholding of effort anyways. Ultimately, these results hint that resources may have a ceiling, rather than an additive, effect. Thus, EO climate may not significantly add to minimizing withholding of effort for those high in these areas. The potential theoretical and practical implications of these null findings will be discussed more below.

Theoretical Implications

The current study provides multiple theoretical contributions. First, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first study linking equal opportunity (EO) climate to withholding of effort, a counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Past research suggests that EO climate enhances job satisfaction and work group efficacy, as well as minimizes job stress (McIntyre et al., 2002; Walsh et al., 2010), but no studies link EO climate to a component of performance, such as counterproductive work behavior (CWB). CWB is often referred to as a core component of job performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Theoretically speaking, EO climate mitigates CWB by

providing resources to employees (e.g., equitable treatment), further expanding resources to include EO climate. Employees receiving resources, according to the conservation of resources (COR) theory, may have gain spirals (Hakanen et al., 2008). A gain spiral is when the accrual of a resource provides opportunities to gain additional resources. Thus, employees gain a type of interest on their resources, creating a passive form of resource accrual. My findings suggest that EO climate acts as a resource, which then has the potential to improve the odds of an employee receiving additional resources. Ultimately, EO climate acts as a resource, negatively effecting withholding of effort. While this has been explored with other focal climates (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005), such as service climate, this relationship has yet to be explored with EO climate. Thus, the current study provides support for the conservation of resources theory and what organizational components can act as a resource.

Second, the current study assessed how EO climate may have a negative indirect effect on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. While past research has explored the relationship between focal climates (e.g., safety climate) and emotional exhaustion (Idris et al., 2014), no studies have assessed how EO climate may mitigate emotional exhaustion. Thus, the current study expanded the theoretical view of emotional exhaustion by exploring how another focal climate, EO climate, may minimize emotional exhaustion by acting as a resource, thereby minimizing withholding of effort. Similar to my first theoretical contribution, the indirect effect of EO climate on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion also expands the conservation of resources theory to include EO climate as a resource (Salanova et al., 2005). Thus, not only does safety climate function as a resource, but so does EO climate.

Third, the current study expands our understanding of the relationship between personality and CWB. Past research suggests that personality does relate to job performance

(Barrick & Mount, 2005). Specifically, conscientiousness has negative relationships with deviant behavior (e.g., theft, drug and alcohol use) and turnover (Salgado, 2002). Emotional stability, on the other hand, has a negative relationship with turnover. However, to the best of my knowledge, no previous studies have assessed how personality may relate to withholding of effort. Furthermore, rather than exploring this relationship with personality factors as predictors, I suggested that they may have interactive effects with other environmental (i.e., EO climate) and personal (i.e., emotional exhaustion) factors. While these hypotheses were rejected, the moderation effect still exists but as the inverse of the originally hypothesized relationships. Meaning, these interactions were significant for those low in emotional stability and conscientiousness rather than high. Thus, the results of this study suggest that resources potentially have ceiling effects, no longer contributing to performance as much when other factors hold influence (e.g., EO climate). The idea of ceiling effects in resources has yet to be explored. While these findings do not corroborate gain spirals, they do suggest that a certain amount of resources contribute to an outcome, such as withholding of effort. As such, EO climate may be even more integral for employees low in emotional stability and conscientiousness to minimize withholding of effort. This and other practical implications of this study will be discussed more below.

Practical Implications

The current study has multiple practical implications. First, equal opportunity (EO) climate has a negative relationship with withholding of effort. Withholding of effort, as a counterproductive work behavior (CWB), is considered a contributor to performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Thus, organizations with high EO climate may be able to enhance both individual and firm performance. For example, organizations that emphasize equal opportunity

policies, practices, and procedures may improve EO climate and, thereby improve performance. Within the military, these stakes are even higher. Greater EO climate may enhance force readiness, improving mission outcomes and diminishing loss of life. Future research is needed to explore what specific policies, practices, and procedures may enhance EO climate.

Second, EO climate has a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion, acting as a resource that minimizes numerous negative outcomes for employees. For example, research suggests that emotional exhaustion is a core component of burnout (Maslach, 1982). Furthermore, research suggests emotional exhaustion relates to physiological and psychological ailments and overall well-being (Janssen et al., 2010; Kahill, 1988). Thus, from a practical perspective, a positive EO climate, in addition to minimizing withholding of effort, may also diminish the potential for other deleterious effects, such as diminished well-being. Organizations that emphasize a positive EO climate may benefit from enhanced performance by improved well-being, which is linked to firm performance (Ford et al., 2011). Future research is needed to see how EO climate may relate to employee well-being and other factors of performance.

Third, the current study suggested that individual differences may also mitigate withholding of effort. Specifically, I suggested that both conscientiousness and emotional stability may interact with EO climate and emotional exhaustion, respectively, to minimize withholding of effort. While these hypotheses were not supported, my findings suggest that there may be a ceiling effect for individual differences in relation to counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Specifically, EO climate has the most significant negative effect on withholding of effort for those with low emotional stability and conscientiousness. Thus, while both EO climate and individual differences may contribute to mitigating withholding of effort, taken together, they do not uniquely contribute to the negative relationship. These results suggest that by

enhancing EO climate, organizations may mitigate the risk of hires low in conscientiousness and emotional stability. This is of great importance since both conscientiousness and emotional stability are considered contributors to performance (Barrick & Mount, 2005). Within the military this is especially important since in times of war, a draft may inhibit the military's ability to be selective in hiring decisions. Thus, the military may be able to mitigate the potential for withholding of effort by enhancing EO climate regardless of emotional stability or conscientiousness levels of new hires.

In sum, to enhance for readiness and employee well-being, the military should identify processes, policies, and procedures that enhance EO climate. In so doing, the military may be able to diminish withholding of effort, emotional exhaustion (and, thereby, enhance employee well-being), and the impact of new recruits lower in emotional stability and conscientiousness. Ultimately, enhancing EO climate may position the military to be more effective and better equipped to handle high-risk missions and other high-stake tasks.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study does have some limitations. First, I did not measure why employees engaged in withholding of effort. Employees may engage in withholding of effort to cope or for other reasons, which was not specifically explored in this study. However, the current study only assesses the *how* rather than the *why* of withholding of effort. As an often-neglected facet of counterproductive work behavior (CWB), future research should assess why employees engage in withholding of effort when equal opportunity (EO) climate is low.

Second, the current study did not assess differences in the model based on personal characteristics (e.g., race) even though past research suggests that minority members have different perceptions of EO climate compared to majority members (Dansby & Landis, 1998;

Truhon, 2008). The current study did not have sufficient minority member sample size to parse effects by personal characteristics. Thus, future studies should assess if EO climate differentially relates to withholding of effort based upon personal characteristics.

Third, I did not assess what may enhance EO climate, but only how it relates to withholding of effort. As such, additional research is needed to identify what policies, procedures, and other organizational characteristics contribute to positive EO climate. Furthermore, researchers should assess how to enhance EO climate for different members depended on their group membership.

Lastly, the data used in the current study is cross-sectional and at risk for common method bias (Podsakoff MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Additional research should consider a longitudinal or cross-lagged design to ascertain the effect of EO climate on withholding of effort. In so doing, the variance may be more accurately attributed to its correct sources.

Conclusion

The current study sought to assess the relationship between equal opportunity (EO) climate and withholding of effort. I found that EO climate, as hypothesized, has a negative direct effect on withholding of effort (hypothesis 1), as well as a negative indirect effect on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion (hypothesis 2). However, I did not find support for the moderation of emotional stability on the relationship between EO climate and emotional exhaustion (hypothesis 3) or conscientiousness on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and withholding of effort (hypothesis 4). Thus, EO climate does negatively relate to withholding of effort, but this relationship is not strengthened when employees are high in conscientiousness or high in emotional stability. However, the inverse is true. Those lower in emotional stability

and conscientiousness are less likely to engage in withholding of effort when EO climate is high. As such, EO climate does act as a resource, especially for those low in emotional stability and conscientiousness. For this reason, organizations high in EO climate may reap numerous benefits, such as better performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Ford et al., 2011) and enhanced well-being (Janssen et al., 2010; Kahill, 1988). Future research should assess how to enhance EO climate to further harness these organizational benefits.

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Table 1

Item Indicator Mean, SDs, and Correlations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. EO1	3.32	1.31														
2. EO2	4.28	1.10	.42**													
3. EO3	4.45	0.95	.38**	.77**												
4. EO4	4.40	0.96	.29**	.58**	.67**											
5. EO5	4.38	0.97	.34**	.58**	.65**	.64**										
6. EO6	3.79	1.28	.68**	.49**	.46**	.40**	.41**									
7. EO7	3.58	1.33	.75**	.45**	.42**	.34**	.37**	.82**								
8. EO8	4.47	0.95	.35**	.61**	.64**	.56**	.55**	.46**	.41**							
9. EO9	4.08	1.21	.59**	.46**	.47**	.38**	.40**	.65**	.65**	.53**						
10. EO10	4.39	0.95	.42**	.62**	.62**	.55**	.58**	.50**	.44**	.73**	.57**					
11. EO11	4.11	1.16	.39**	.52**	.55**	.51**	.50**	.49**	.46**	.53**	.52**	.62**				
12. EO12	4.17	1.09	.35**	.48**	.47**	.44**	.43**	.45**	.44**	.50**	.46**	.56**	.78**			
13. EO13	4.07	1.21	.39**	.43**	.41**	.40**	.43**	.43**	.44**	.42**	.42**	.50**	.56**	.58**		
14. EO14	4.28	1.05	.40**	.58**	.55**	.52**	.50**	.46**	.43**	.58**	.48**	.67**	.72**	.75**	.58**	
15. EO15	4.26	1.04	.40**	.55**	.57**	.52**	.54**	.45**	.40**	.58**	.45**	.63**	.61**	.57**	.63**	.66**
16. EO16	4.24	1.08	.41**	.56**	.52**	.50**	.51**	.47**	.47**	.52**	.45**	.56**	.61**	.61**	.70**	.64**
17. Con 1	3.82	1.01	.12**	.14**	.14**	.13**	.12**	.10**	.07*	.16**	.11**	.16**	.12**	.09**	.09**	.11**
18. Con2	3.92	0.93	.15**	.17**	.19**	.19**	.17**	.14**	.11**	.25**	.17**	.19**	.15**	.09**	.11**	.16**
19. Con 3	3.89	0.92	.15**	.17**	.17**	.18**	.13**	.18**	.14**	.24**	.17**	.19**	.12**	.08**	.11**	.13**
20. ES 1	2.66	1.16	-.20**	-.14**	-.17**	-.14**	-.16**	-.19**	-.19**	-.15**	-.11**	-.12**	-.18**	-.13**	-.14**	-.14**
21. ES 2	3.38	1.12	.20**	.14**	.17**	.12**	.14**	.17**	.20**	.14**	.15**	.14**	.16**	.15**	.16**	.14**
22. ES 3	2.59	1.18	-.12**	-.09**	-.11**	-.08**	-.10**	-.11**	-.14**	-.08*	-.07*	-.09**	-.13**	-.08*	-.13**	-.10**
23. ES 4	3.01	1.34	.09**	.09**	.03	-.01	.00	.02	.04	.05	-.02	.02	.05	.05	.02	.06*
24. EE 1	3.20	1.21	-.21**	-.09**	-.12**	-.06	-.10**	-.21**	-.23**	-.07*	-.15**	-.12**	-.20**	-.15**	-.17**	-.13**
25. EE 2	3.38	1.22	-.18**	-.05	-.05	.01	.00	-.19**	-.21**	-.01	-.13**	-.04	-.13**	-.08**	-.10**	-.08*
26. EE 3	3.40	1.19	-.22**	-.10**	-.10**	-.04	-.08**	-.22**	-.26**	-.05	-.16**	-.09**	-.17**	-.13**	-.17**	-.13**
27. EE 4	2.98	1.17	-.24**	-.16**	-.16**	-.13**	-.14**	-.26**	-.27**	-.11**	-.21**	-.17**	-.20**	-.16**	-.25**	-.16**
28. EE 5	3.17	1.21	-.23**	-.13**	-.14**	-.08**	-.09**	-.24**	-.28**	-.08**	-.18**	-.11**	-.19**	-.16**	-.18**	-.15**
29. CWB 1	1.63	1.15	-.22**	-.26**	-.25**	-.28**	-.24**	-.28**	-.24**	-.32**	-.21**	-.29**	-.30**	-.26**	-.24**	-.29**
30. CWB 2	1.67	1.16	-.24**	-.29**	-.29**	-.33**	-.31**	-.31**	-.27**	-.34**	-.25**	-.34**	-.32**	-.28**	-.27**	-.32**
31. CWB 3	1.56	1.10	-.24**	-.32**	-.32**	-.34**	-.31**	-.29**	-.24**	-.38**	-.22**	-.35**	-.32**	-.26**	-.26**	-.32**
32. CWB 4	1.78	1.21	-.24**	-.24**	-.22**	-.26**	-.20**	-.28**	-.25**	-.31**	-.25**	-.27**	-.31**	-.28**	-.19**	-.31**
33. CWB 5	1.80	1.23	-.25**	-.27**	-.26**	-.26**	-.23**	-.29**	-.28**	-.31**	-.26**	-.31**	-.29**	-.27**	-.22**	-.30**
34. CWB 6	1.90	1.31	-.28**	-.23**	-.21**	-.25**	-.21**	-.29**	-.30**	-.27**	-.26**	-.26**	-.27**	-.25**	-.25**	-.29**

Note. N = 686-972. EO = Equal Opportunity Climate; Con = Conscientiousness; ES = Emotional Stability; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior (i.e., Withholding of Effort).

Table 1 (Continued)

Item Indicator Mean, SDs, and Correlations

	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
14. EO14												
15. EO15												
16. EO16	.71**											
17. Con 1	.16**	.12**										
18. Con2	.21**	.13**	.53**									
19. Con 3	.17**	.13**	.54**	.68**								
20. ES 1	-.11**	-.15**	-.13**	-.15**	-.15**							
21. ES 2	.10**	.16**	.25**	.29**	.30**	-.40**						
22. ES 3	-.10**	-.13**	-.09**	-.16**	-.12**	.60**	-.40**					
23. ES 4	.05	.06	.15**	.11**	.13**	-.05	.11**	-.06				
24. EE 1	-.12**	-.15**	-.08**	-.05	-.03	.38**	-.30**	.38**	-.03			
25. EE 2	-.02	-.09**	.01	.02	.01	.31**	-.23**	.32**	.01	.73**		
26. EE 3	-.06	-.13**	-.03	-.04	-.03	.31**	-.26**	.31**	.00	.64**	.64**	
27. EE 4	-.18**	-.22**	-.08*	-.11**	-.10**	.31**	-.29**	.37**	-.02	.64**	.63**	.72**
28. EE 5	-.11**	-.17**	-.03	-.05	-.06*	.33**	-.32**	.33**	-.03	.62**	.67**	.74**
29. CWB 1	-.29**	-.35**	-.21**	-.30**	-.30**	.23**	-.23**	.21**	-.05*	.12**	.03	.11**
30. CWB 2	-.31**	-.36**	-.22**	-.32**	-.30**	.24**	-.26**	.24**	-.02	.19**	.09*	.18**
31. CWB 3	-.36**	-.34**	-.24**	-.32**	-.31**	.24**	-.20**	.20**	-.03	.11**	.01	.08*
32. CWB 4	-.25**	-.27**	-.22**	-.27**	-.28**	.25**	-.22**	.23**	-.09**	.20**	.12**	.18**
33. CWB 5	-.26**	-.30**	-.14**	-.26**	-.22**	.28**	-.24**	.27**	-.05	.26**	.15**	.28**
34. CWB 6	-.23**	-.30**	-.17**	-.19**	-.20**	.30**	-.30**	.30**	-.07*	.32**	.23**	.33**

Note. N = 686-972. EO = Equal Opportunity Climate; Con = Conscientiousness; ES = Emotional Stability; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior (i.e., Withholding of Effort).

Table 1 (continued)

Item Indicator Mean, SDs, and Correlations

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
19. Con 3	.68**															
20. ES 1	-.15**	-.15**														
21. ES 2	.29**	.30**	-.40**													
22. ES 3	-.16**	-.12**	.60**	-.40**												
23. ES 4	.11**	.13**	-.05	.11**	-.06											
24. EE 1	-.05	-.03	.38**	-.30**	.38**	-.03										
25. EE 2	.02	.01	.31**	-.23**	.32**	.01	.73**									
26. EE 3	-.04	-.03	.31**	-.26**	.31**	.00	.64**	.64**								
27. EE 4	-.11**	-.10**	.31**	-.29**	.37**	-.02	.64**	.63**	.72**							
28. EE 5	-.05	-.06*	.33**	-.32**	.33**	-.03	.62**	.67**	.74**	.78**						
29. CWB 1	-.30**	-.30**	.23**	-.23**	.21**	-.05*	.12**	.03	.11**	.20**	.19**					
30. CWB 2	-.32**	-.30**	.24**	-.26**	.24**	-.02	.19**	.09*	.18**	.25**	.21**	.82**				
31. CWB 3	-.32**	-.31**	.24**	-.20**	.20**	-.03	.11**	.01	.08*	.19**	.16**	.78**	.79**			
32. CWB 4	-.27**	-.28**	.25**	-.22**	.23**	-.09**	.20**	.12**	.18**	.25**	.27**	.71**	.67**	.71**		
33. CWB 5	-.26**	-.22**	.28**	-.24**	.27**	-.05	.26**	.15**	.28**	.32**	.31**	.72**	.72**	.73**	.79**	
34. CWB 6	-.19**	-.20**	.30**	-.30**	.30**	-.07*	.32**	.23**	.33**	.37**	.34**	.66**	.70**	.64**	.74**	.79**

Note. N = 686-972. Con = Conscientiousness; ES = Emotional Stability; CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior (Withholding of Effort).

Table 2
Unconditional and Conditional Model Fit Indices

Model	H_0 log-likelihood	*D*	AIC	ΔAIC	BIC	ΔBIC	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Unconditional	-39922.69		80075.38		80636.51		2109.65**	514	0.06	0.93	0.05
Conditional	-39917.09	11.20**	80068.17	7.21	80639.06	-2.55					

Note. N=972. *D* = log-likelihood difference; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; χ^2 = chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Table 3
Direct Effects

Predictors	Emotional Exhaustion				Withholding of Effort			
Direct Effects	B	SE_B	β	SE_β	B	SE_B	β	SE_β
Equal Opportunity Climate	-0.14**	0.05	-0.09	0.03	-0.44**	0.06	-0.30	0.03
Emotional Exhaustion					0.25**	0.04	0.22	0.03

Note. N = 972. SE = Standard Error. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4
Mediation-Only Indirect Effect

Mediator	Withholding of Effort			
	Effect	*SE*	LLCI	ULCI
Equal Opportunity (EO) Climate through Emotional Exhaustion	-0.04**	-0.01	-0.06	-0.01

Note. N = 972. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. *SE* = Standard Error; LLCI = Lower Level Confidence Interval; ULCI = Upper Level Confidence Interval.

Table 5

Conditional Indirect Effect Simple Slope Estimates for Equal Opportunity (EO) Climate on Withholding of Effort at ±1 Standard Deviation

		Withholding of Effort							
Moderator		Indirect Effect				Total Effect			
Emotional Stability	Conscientiousness	*Effect*	*SE*	LLCI	ULCI	*Effect*	*SE*	LLCI	ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	Low (-1 SD)	-0.08**	0.03	-0.14	-0.03	-0.52**	0.06	-0.64	-0.40
Mean	Low (-1 SD)	-0.05**	0.02	-0.08	-0.02	-0.49**	0.06	-0.61	-0.38
High (+1 SD)	Low (-1 SD)	-0.02	0.02	-0.06	0.02	-0.46**	0.06	-0.58	-0.34
Low (-1 SD)	Mean	-0.06**	0.02	-0.10	-0.02	-0.50**	0.06	-0.62	-0.38
Mean	Mean	-0.04**	0.01	-0.06	-0.01	-0.48**	0.06	-0.59	-0.36
High (+1 SD)	Mean	-0.01	0.02	-0.04	0.02	-0.45**	0.06	-0.57	-0.34
Low (-1 SD)	High (+1 SD)	-0.04*	0.02	-0.07	-0.01	-0.48**	0.06	-0.59	-0.37
Mean	High (+1 SD)	-0.02*	0.01	-0.04	0.00	-0.46**	0.06	-0.57	-0.35
High (+1 SD)	High (+1 SD)	-0.01	0.01	-0.03	0.01	-0.45**	0.06	-0.56	-0.34

Note. N = 972. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. *SE* = Standard Error; LLCI = Lower Level Confidence Interval; ULCI = Upper Level Confidence Interval.

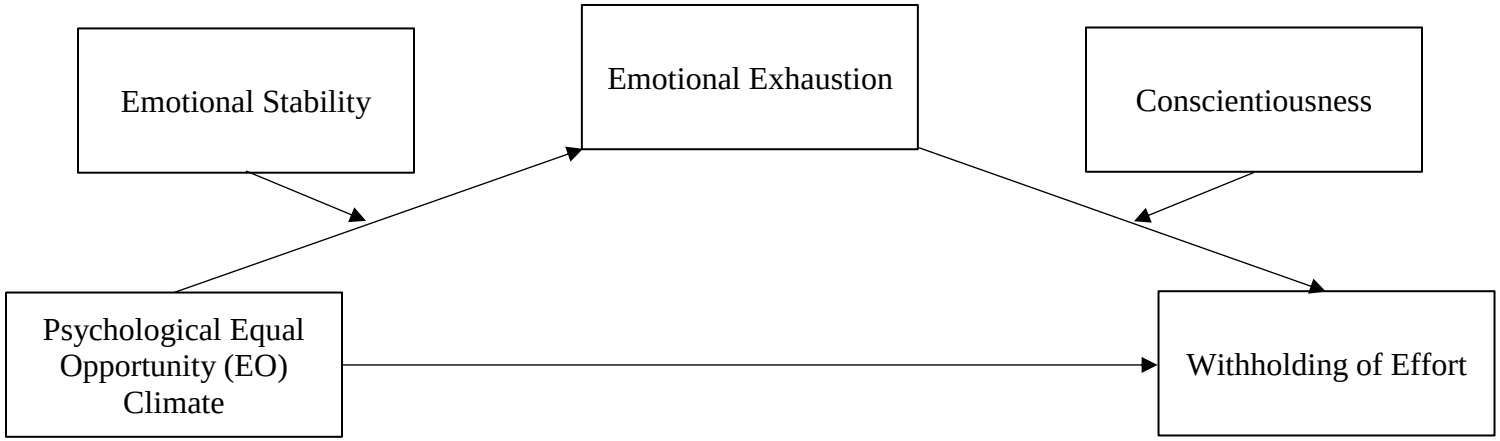

Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model

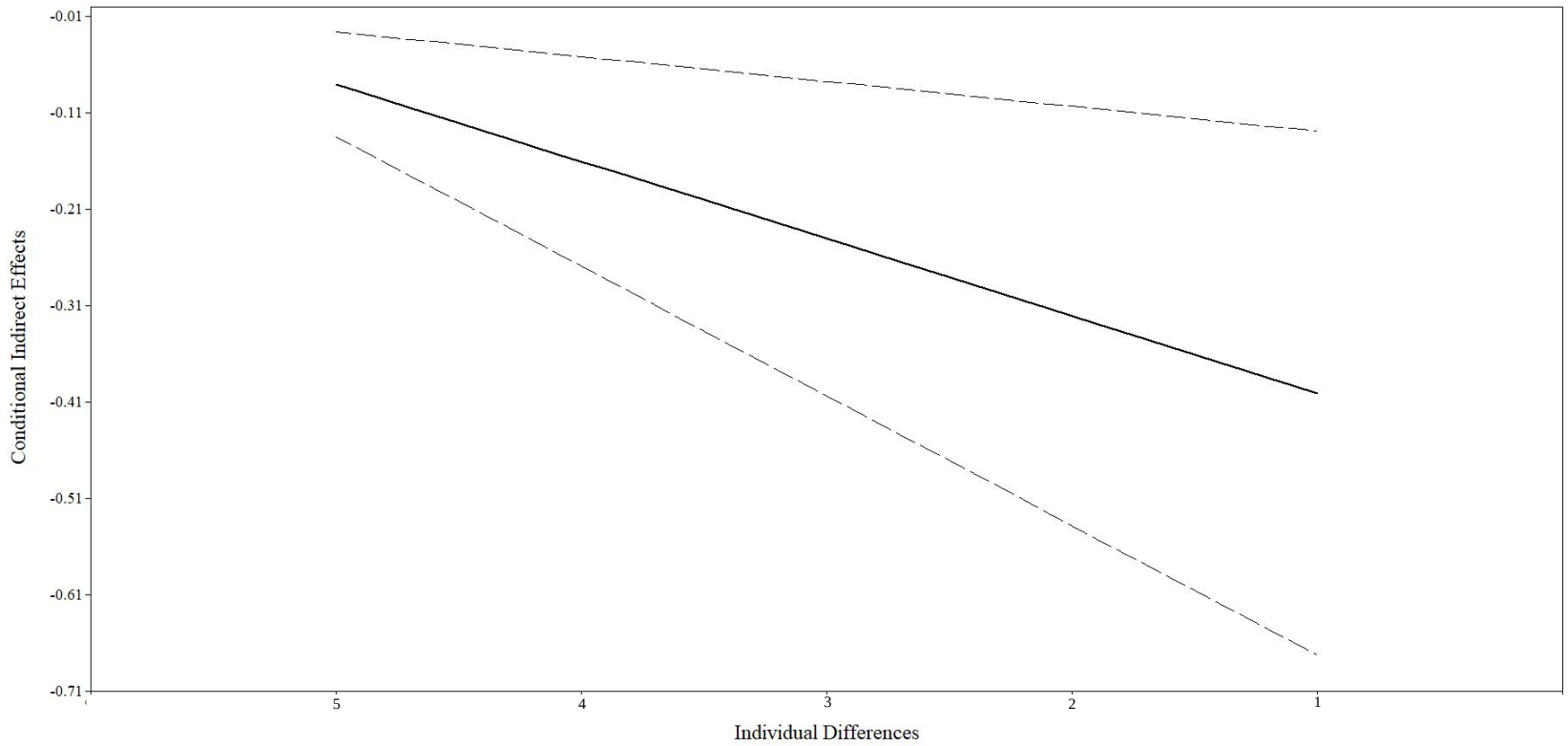

Figure 2. Plot demonstrating the effect of emotional stability and conscientiousness on the indirect effect of equal opportunity climate on withholding of effort through emotional exhaustion. Dashed lines indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Appendix A: Equal Opportunity (EO) Climate

Racist Behavior

1. A person of one race or ethnicity told several jokes about a different race or ethnicity.
2. Offensive racial or ethnic names were frequently heard.
3. Racial or ethnic jokes were frequently heard.

Race Discrimination

4. A supervisor did not select for promotion a qualified subordinate of a different race or ethnicity.
5. Members of a particular race or ethnicity were assigned less desirable office space than members of a different race or ethnicity.
6. The person in charge of the organization changed the duty assignments when it was discovered that two people of the same race or ethnicity were assigned to the same sensitive area on the same shift.
7. While speaking to a group, the person in charge of the organization took more time to answer questions from one race or ethnic group than from another group.

Sex Harassment

8. When a person complained of sexual harassment, the supervisor said, "You’re being too sensitive."
9. A supervisor referred to subordinates of one gender by their first names in public while using titles for subordinates of the other gender.

Sex Discrimination

10. Jokes about a particular gender were frequently heard.
11. A person made sexually suggestive remarks about the opposite gender.

Religious Discrimination

12. A well-qualified person was denied a job because the supervisor did not like the religious beliefs of the person.
13. A demeaning comment was made about a certain religious group.
14. A supervisor favored a worker who had the same religious beliefs as the supervisor.

Age Discrimination

15. A younger person was selected for a prestigious assignment over an older person who was equally, if not slightly better qualified.
16. An older individual did not get the same career opportunities as did a younger individual.
17. A young supervisor did not recommend promotion for a qualified older worker.

Disability Discrimination

18. A worker with a disability was not given the same opportunities as other workers.
19. A career opportunity speech to a worker with a disability focused on the lack of opportunity elsewhere; to others, it emphasized promotion.
20. A supervisor did not appoint a qualified worker with a disability to a new position, but instead appointed another, less qualified worker.

Scale (Dansby & Landis, 1991; Walsh et al., 2010):

1 = There is almost no chance that the behavior occurred.

2 = There is a small chance that the behavior occurred.

3 = There is a moderate chance that the behavior occurred.

4 = There is a reasonably high chance that the behavior occurred.

5 = There is a very high chance that the behavior occurred.

Appendix B: Emotional Exhaustion

1. Over the past 6 months, I have felt emotionally drained from my work.
2. Over the past 6 months, I have felt used up at the end of the workday.
3. Over the past 6 months, I have felt tired when I got up in the morning knowing I have to face another day on the job.
4. Over the past 6 months, I have felt that working my duty shift is a strain on me.
5. Over the past 6 months, I have felt burned out from job duties.

Scale (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996)

1 = Never

2 = Almost Never

3 = Sometimes

4 = Fairly Often

5 = Very Often

Appendix C: Withholding of Effort

1. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to even the score.
2. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to retaliate for being mistreated.
3. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to get the treatment or rewards I deserve.
4. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to conserve energy.
5. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to be able to devote effort towards other things.
6. Over the past 6 months, I have withheld effort on my job to avoid a stressful or draining situation.

Scale (Adapted from Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C) (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006))

1 = Not at all during the past 6 months.

2 = Once or twice during the past 6 months.

3 = One or two times a month.

4 = One or two times a week.

5 = At least once a day.

Appendix D: Emotional Stability

1. I have frequent mood swings.
2. I am relaxed most of the time.
3. I get upset easily.
4. I seldom feel depressed.

Scale (Adapted from the Mini-IPIP) (Donnellan et al., 2006).

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither agree nor disagree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

Appendix E: Conscientiousness

1. I am almost always prepared.
2. I pay attention to details.
3. I am precise in my work.

Scale (Adapted from the Mini-IPIP) (Donnellan et al., 2006).

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither agree nor disagree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree